DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 208 437 CS 503 613

AUTHOR Meyers, Renee
TITLE An Examination of the Male Sex Role Model in Prime Time Television Commercials.
PUB DATE Nov 80
NOTE 41p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Speech Communication Association (66th, New York, NY, November 13-16, 1980).

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Males; Role Models; *Sex Role; *Sex Stereotypes; *Television Commercials; *Television Research

ABSTRACT

Noting that previous research has shown that television content influences attitudes and behavior, a content analysis of 269 television commercials broadcast during prime time was conducted to examine whether male sex role stereotyping existed in the commercials and, if it did, to determine the characteristics of that stereotyping and whether the depicted stereotype conforms to or alters the dominant cultural stereotype. The analysis found four main characteristics of male sex role stereotyping in the commercials: (1) the authoritative-dominant figure; (2) the competitive, success hungry individualist; (3) the breadwinner, with no domestic association; and (4) the emotionless male. Based on parallels drawn to four societal rules of masculinity, the results also indicated that these stereotyped images conform to and reflect the dominant cultural stereotype of the American male. (Appendixes contain definitions of terms used in the study and extensive tables of data.) (HTH)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED208437

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

An Examination of the Male Sex Role Model in Prime Time Television Commercials

Renee Meyers, M.A.
Department of Speech Communication
St. Cloud State University
St. Cloud, MN 56301
(612) 255-3158

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Renee Meyers

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Presented to the Speech Communication Association,
Mass Communication Division
New York, New York
November, 1980

CS503613

An Examination of the Male Sex Role Model

in Prime Time Television Commercials

Television, which became a mass medium a mere thirty years ago, has grown so rapidly in influence that today the American public places a higher value on television as a source of information and entertainment than on any other of the mass media (Johnson, 1973; U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1977). George Gerbner (1976a), director of the Annenberg School of Communication, stated that "television is the medium of the socialization of most people into standardized roles and behaviors. It's function is, in a word, enculturation" (p. 175). Television has become the primary message system of society, the cultural arm through which social patterns are spread and stabilized. Gerbner warns that television is now mass producing symbols without considering the effects and calls researchers to "investigate the long range consequences of what the communications industry is selling" (Binzen, 1978, p. 53).

Gerbner's urgent call has been answered by increasing numbers of communication researchers. Their research typically focuses on one of two general questions: (1) What power of influence does television hold over human behavior? and (2) What behavioral patterns are portrayed in television content? Each question, of course, is necessary to the meaning of the other. The evidence of the effect of television portrayal is necessary before content studies have any significance. Yet, Gerbner (1976a) has observed that "we cannot presume consequences without the prior investigation of content" (p. 176). Together the body of knowledge built from the many research projects forms a mosiac that for the first time helps us understand the phenomena of television's mass influence.

In the past, two main areas of effects studies, those which examine

the influence of violent models upon the behavior of children and adults, and those which investigate the influence of television's political models upon the formation of political attitudes and beliefs of adolescents, have provided the most significant evidence that indeed television does have an influence upon the viewer and his/her behavior and attitudes.

Research on the effects of televised violence upon children has provided a significant contribution to our knowledge of television's influence by attempting to demonstrate that television plays a role in the socialization of the child. Mass communication researchers, as well as government research teams, have documented that children who watch aggressive television episodes, are more willingly aggressive (Larson, 1968; Liebert & Baron, 1972; Liebert & Neale, & Davidson, 1973), are capable of imitating violence seen on television, (Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1961; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963; Berkowitz, 1965), and are often associated with regressive anxiety, fighting and delinquency (Dominick & Greenberg, 1972; Schweiker, 1972; McCarthy, Langner, Bersten, Eisenberg, & Orzeck, 1975; Chaffee & Petrick, 1975; Johnson, 1970). Furthermore, long term effects as well as short term effects of violent programming are evident (Hicks, 1965; Lefkowitz, Eron, Walder, & Huesman, 1972), and adults as well as children are susceptible (Gerbner & Gross, 1976b; Gerbner, Gross, Jackson-Beeck, Jeffries-Fox, & Signorielli, 1978; Gerbner, Gross, Signorielli, Morgan, Jackson-Beeck, 1979). As Weiss points out, "there is little doubt that by displaying forms of aggression or modes of criminal violent behavior, the media are 'teaching' and people are 'learning'" (Rubenstein & Comstock, 1972, p. 103).

Regarding effects studies on the role of television to reach political ideas and attitudes and the willingness of the viewer to learn and inter-

nalize them, mass communication researchers have recently offered evidence indicating that television plays a decisive role in political socialization (Chaffee, Ward, & Tipton, 1970; Jackson-Beeck, 1979; Rubin, 1978), contributes to learning about politics and government, (Dominick. 1972; Hollander, 1971), and that systematic television viewing results in the formation of political behavior (Kraus, 1973).

These two areas of research and their conclusions clearly document that television performs a teaching function, and the viewer, a learning function. Thus, the inference to be drawn to a study of the effects of televised sex role models, is that if television has the power to influence/teach both violent behavior and political attitudes, then television can also play a role in influencing/teaching sex role behavior and attitudes.

The significance of that idea has recently increased interest in examining the influence of television upon sex role behavior itself. Recent research suggests that heavy television viewing plays a role in a child's acquisition of knowledge about sex stereotyped behavior and attitudes. Heavy child viewers perceive the sex roles portrayed on television as reality, equate people on television with the people they know, and believe that television characters and "real" people are alike most of the time (Gross, 1974; Lyle & Hoffman, 1972; Leifer, Gordon & Browne, 1974; Feilitzen & Linne, 1975). Thus, it is not surprising to find that children nominate television characters as people they want to be like when they grow up (Miller & Reeves, 1975). What is disturbing, however, is that in most instances children express preference for highly stereotyped television character portrayals of their own sex (Miller & Reeves, 1975), and that high amounts of television viewing are clearly associated with stronger traditional sex role development (Freuh & McGhee, 1975; McGhee, 1975); an indication that television is teaching

the appropriateness of these stereotyped roles.

One aspect of television's programming which has considerable influence is television advertising (McArthur & Resko, 1975; Maracek, Piliavin, Fitzsimmons, Krogh, Leader, & Trudell, 1978). Marshall McLuhan suggests that "the historians and archeologists will one day discover that the ads of our times are the richest and most faithful daily reflections that any society ever made of its entire range of activities" (Kuhns, 1971, p. 76). Moreover research has concluded that children are influenced by television advertising communication, and frequently request televised commercial products (McNeal, 1969; Ward, 1971; Burr & Burr, 1977; Rossiter, & Robertson, 1974; Robertson, 1979). Since commercials may be primary educators of appropriate sex role behavior, more important than either teachers or parents (Winick, 1973), it is vitally important that the symbols, images and role models portrayed in television advertising be examined.

The Women's Liberation Movement was an important force in stimulating researchers to examine female sex role models. Writers from this movement provided the initial theoretical groundwork, illuminating the social reality of role restriction and sending scholars to systematic examination of role portrayal in the communication mileau, thus skewing research toward examination of female role constraints.

The literature which examines the female sex role model in television programming consistently confirms the existence of sex role stereotypes. Research indicates that women on television play the submissive, passive, "domestic slave" role society created for them (Cantor, 1972). Not only are they cast in fewer roles then men (Levinson, 1975; McArthur & Resko, 1975), but are almost always seen as mothers and/or housewives (Busby, 1975; Bardwick & Schuman, 1967; Komisar, 1971; Levinson, 1975; O'Donnell

& O'Donnell, 1978). Women are portrayed as mindless, weak, and dependent, for whom failure to perform a menial personal service brings rejection and the withdrawal of love and approval from the male (McArthur & Resko, 1975; Hennessee & Nicholson, 1972; Rivers, 1974; U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1977). They represent domestic products, are seen in the home setting, and hold jobs of a subservient nature (Dominick & Rauch, 1972; Culley & Bennett, 1976; O'Donnell & O'Donnell, 1978). Television commercials today which present the liberated female are virtually nonexistent.

The inference to the protrayal of other role models on television is evident. Until this time, however, examination of the male sex role in any aspect of television programming has been virtually neglected (Busby, 1975). In fact, it appears that while women are making some progress, men are continuing to be socialized into stereotypical roles of dominance and superiority.

Male role restrictions today are based on a set of rules about the meaning of masculinity (Stevens, 1974), which suggest that: (1) The real man must prove his masculinity in financial, intellectual, sexual and physical tests of varying kinds. Men must be successful, intelligent and authoritative, attending to their business or job, allowing little time for family (Gregory, 1978, p. 10.). (2) The future rather than the present is the central value of life -- how things will come out in the end. To be successful, men must continuously push to achieve, plotting ways in which to accumulate wealth and success for the future. (3) Masculinity means rationality and repression of most emotions, particularly tender, dependent emotions. The socialization process is fraught with rules which teach little boys to control the expression of feeling and affection (Block, 1973), and parents who place rigorous demands on their male children

to conform to societal notions of what is "manly" (Hartley, 1959). Thus, males in our society either never develop expressive traits, develop them but defensively hide them, or display them and as a consequence cultivate serious doubts about their sexuality (Brenton, 1966). (4) People whose judgments count are men; women are too emotional and are only important for sexual release and kitchen work. Young boys as well as men are taught to inhibit dependency, passivity and conformity and exhibit dominance and aggression (Kagan, 1969; Sawyer, 1970). Thus the process of socialization creates male "superheroes"; men who possess superior intellectual ability, physical prowess, and power to dominate.

According to men's rights activists, these rules form a tight interlocking system, each supporting and depending upon the other. They all add up to the idea that a man must never appear feminine and must always dominate in order to keep from being identified with women.

Today, however, the society which created and engendered the aggressive, dominant male has changed (Steinmen & Fox, 1974), Men's Liberation groups, employing consciousness raising techniques, are beginning to develop, helping to make men aware of career pressures, communication problems, and the sex role stereotypes to which they traditionally ascribe (Farrell, 1974). Thus, males in our society, constrained and restricted by traditional sex roles, are growing increasingly sensitive to the male dominance theme.

Television, with its impact and power in our society, may well be one of the primary socializing forces in promoting and sustaining these stereotypes. Thus this study, placed within a framework of the socializing influence of television upon our societal and cultural forms, systematically examines the male role model on television. It addresses three questions:

1. Does male sex role stereotyping exist in television content?

2. If, so, what are the characteristics of that stereotyping?

3. Does the depicted male stereotype conform to or alter the dominant cultural stereotype?

Content analysis was chosen as the methodological procedure most appropriate to this research question (Berelson, 1952). The sample was a one week constructed time period (Gerbner & Gross, 1976a; Isber & Cantor, 1975), stratified by both days and weeks.

Categories were created through analyzation of appropriate category systems from research on female sex role models in television commericals, from investigation of literature on male sex role stereotyping and from examination of a random sample of prime time commercials. Advance preparation culminated in 63 categories, which were grouped into seven major areas; (1) predominance of the male character in the commercial, (2) predominance of the male voice-over in the commercial, (3) product being advertised in the commercial, (4) occupation portrayed by the character, (5) location of the characters, (6) display or nondisplay of authority by the characters, and (7) display or nondisplay of affection by the characters.

The content analysis was performed by two expert coders, trained by the experimenter until high reliability levels in a pilot study were achieved.

Reliability between the coders was evaluated employing Scott's index of reliability (Scott, 1955).

Initially, frequency counts were tabulated and percentages computed for simple comparisons among the categories. To interpret the data however, the chi square statistic was utilized. The significance for this study was determined at alpha = .05.

A total of 269 commercials with 649 characters and voice-overs were

recorded and coded during July 24-30, 1978. Reliability levels computed for each of the six major category areas all approached or were above 90 percent, except for the "affection category"(82%). Since this area was the most complex and difficult area to content analyze, lower reliability was expected and was tolerated.

1. Are male role models predominantly more evident then female role models in prime time television commercials? 196 male characters and 236 female characters were coded. This difference was not significant at the .05 level of significance. (See Table A)

2. Are male voice-overs predominantly more evident than female voice-overs in prime time television commercials? A chi square statistical test performed on 180 male voice-overs and 17 female voice-overs indicated a significant difference at the .001 level of significance ($X^2 = 134.86$; $df = 1$; $p < .001$). (See Table A)

3. What type of products are males in prime time television commercials seen advertising? Alcohol ($X^2 = 10.66$; $df = 1$; $p < .005$), automobiles and automobile accessories ($X^2 = 4.25$; $df = 1$; $p < .005$), furniture ($X^2 = 4.25$; $df = 1$; $p < .05$), personal accessories ($X^2 = 4.00$; $df = 1$; $p < .05$), and national finance ($X^2 = 4.25$; $df = 1$; $p < .005$) were product categories in which significantly more males advertised than females, although the final three categories contained relatively small N sizes. In those commercials, however, where body/cosmetic products ($X^2 = 28.80$; $df = 1$; $p < .001$), home products ($X^2 = 6.42$; $df = 1$; $p < .010$), and medical products ($X^2 = 9.52$; $df = 1$; $p < .005$), were advertised, significantly fewer males than females were shown. The remaining product categories contained no significant differences or yielded insufficient N's. (See Table B).

4. What types of occupations do males in prime time television commercials hold? The occupation category, businessman ($X^2 = 7.21$; $df = 1$;

$p < .010$), contained significantly more **male** characters then female characters, and the occupation category, domestic engineer contained significantly fewer males then females ($X^2 = 9.99$; df = 1; $p < .005$). (See Table C). In a comparison of those males portrayed in either white collar or blue collar occupations, 74 percent of the males held white collar jobs, and 26 percent, blue collar.

5. What types of settings are males in prime time television commercials located in? In the location categories, males were significantly more evident than females in bars ($X^2 = 6.16$; df = 1; $p < .025$), and significantly less evident than females in the home ($X^2 = 15.90$; df = 1; $p < .005$). Other categories contained no significant differences or insufficient N sizes. (See Table D).

6. Do males in prime time television commercials exhibit authority? Male voice-overs were significantly more authoritative then female voice-overs ($X^2 = 114.52$; df = 1; $p < .001$). (See Table E).

6a. What types of products do males in prime time television commercials exhibit authority for? It was discovered that males exhibit more authority than females in advertisements for alcohol ($X^2 = 4.25$; df = 1; $p < .05$), and automobiles and automobile accessories ($X^2 = 6.26$; df = 1; $p < .025$), and considerably less authority than females in advertisements for body/cosmetic products ($X^2 = 18.64$; df = 1; $p < .001$). Other categories contained insignificant differences or insufficient N sizes. (See Table E).

7. Do males in prime time television commercials exhibit affection? Males demonstrated significantly less affection than their female counterparts ($X^2 = 11.56$; df = 1; $p < .001$). (See Table G).

7a. Do males exhibit more affection in some occupations than others? In the categories son/daughter, parent, and spouse, males demonstrated significantly less affection than females -- son/daughter ($X^2 = 5.415$; df = 1;

$p < .025$), parent ($X^2 = 4.79$; df = 1; $p < .05$), and spouse ($X^2 = 4.79$; df = 1; $p < .05$). (See Table H).

Given these results, the three research questions posed earlier in this study can now be answered.

Does Male Sex Role Stereotyping Exist in Television Content?

Originally, "stereotype" was a printing term that referred to the plate that printed the same image over and over again. Analagously, in television programming, those male role images continually repeated from commercial to commercial are the stereotypes which must be illuminated, verifying the existence of male sex role stereotyping in television advertising. Several such stereotyped male images exist in television advertising. For example, 96 percent of the voice-overs are male, an overwhelmingly repetitious image. Males repeatedly more often than females advertise such products as alcohol (males, 10%; females, 2%), automobiles/motorcycles (males, 9%; females, 4%), and automobile and motorcycle accessories (males, 6%; females, 1%). In occupational roles, the repetition is concentrated into two main categories; athlete and businessman; constituting the majority of occupations portrayed by males (13%). In like manner, commercials repeatedly utilized authoritative male voice-overs which exhibited competence in their messages and displayed male role models who seldom demonstrated any show of affection. In the strictest sense of the word then, television males are locked into certain recurrent images and roles and the existence of male sex role stereotyping is a reality.

What Are The Characteristics of Male Sex Role Stereotyping?

One of the major characteristics discovered in this study of the male role model was the "authoritative/dominant" figure. For example, overwhelming use of the male voice-over to provide content to television commercials,

substantiated the stereotypes of dominance, superiority and authority. In most commercials, he spoke knowledgably and authoritatively about the product--often even typical "feminine" products, such as panty-hose or perfume. Even more blatantly stereotypic though, were those instances when a female had advertised a "feminine" product, i.e., laundry detergent, and the male voice-over would enter at the end of the commerical, stating, "Brand X, with bleach, borax and brighteners, for the cleanest wash in town." Males, confirming the stereotypes of dominance, competence, and authority, were expected to advertise all products with equal competence--from feminine hygiene to automobiles.

Another characteristic image of the television male is that of the "competitive/success-hungry, individualist." Males on television advertise automobile related products more than any other single product except food. Since automobiles are often seen as a key to masculinity and often denote success, achievement and wealth in our society, television utilizes this stereotype to convey the "success hungry" male. In another instance, television depicts the stereotypic image of the competitive rugged individualist, coming back from a hard day outdoors, in advertisements of Miller, Schlitz, or Budweiser. The male role models in these commercials epitomize the macho male, clearly demonstrating stereotypic characteristics.

Most assuredly, the male image of "breadwinner" constitutes another important stereotypic characteristic. Alcohol helps create the image of the "breadwinner" role as the ultimate proof of masculinity, (Gregory, 1978). Television commercials exploit that stereotype by utilizing businessmen to advertise alcohol; such as a hard working breadwinner coming home from the office to a cold beer. And when males are not drinking alcohol they are so preoccupied with jobs, the role of breadwinner,

and the future, they have no time to enjoy home and family. Typically, of course, "breadwinner" males were conspicuously absent from advertisements for "female" products such as body/cosmetic products and home products. In those rare instances (two commercials), when a male was allowed to play the role of homemaker, the protrayal was comic and severly stereotypic. The male was ignorant, embarrassed, clumsy, and evidently only in this role because his wife was out (as verified by her return at the end of the commercial). After much confusion, the man's young daughter helped him out of his dilemma by suggesting Brand Y, which only required him to open a box and add water. A more traditional portrayal of the male's role as "breadwinner" would be difficult to find. Also conforming to the "breadwinner" characteristic was the portrayal of male models in the role of parent and spouse (20%). Men seen with the family on vacation, in the car, or at a restaurant, often played the husband/father/head of the household role by paying the bills, driving the car, and taking the family out to dinner. More than anything else, the father was seen as an adequate provider, a hard worker, an authoritative figure, and a man to whom the family looked for advice and protection.

The home location offered further evidence of the "breadwinner" stereotype. Men were less frequently seen in the home setting than females (25% to 37%), lending confirmation to the stereotype which suggests that not only the care of the home, but the location itself is off limits to the male.

The "white collar" figure was characteristically another stereotypic image repeatedly discovered in television advertising. It was far more common on television to see businessmen dressed in suits, and ties, and white shirts, than to see mechanics or farmers in work clothes. Advertising specifically utilized the "white collar" figure to create the stereotyped male.

Finally the complete absence of emotion shown by male models in television commercials is a characteristic of male sex role stereotyping which cannot be overlooked. Even those commercials where a man is with a spouse or child, caring may be exhibited by the spouse or child, but rarely is it returned by the man. There are those instances, "Geritol" commercials for example, where some display of affection by the male is allowed. Even the slight affection shown to the wife in these commercials, an endearing look, or a touch on the arm, is seldom seen in other commercials however, Other types of dependent emotion, grief, sadness, or hurt, were never portrayed. Television creates few commercials which truly allow a male to demonstrate feelings, which would free him from the emotional restrictions of masculine stereotyping.

Thus, although there are some exceptions, the picture of television's portrayal of the male sex role model is hardly encouraging. In the overall drama of the television commercial, the characteristics of authority figures, competitive individualists, breadwinners, white collar figures, and lack of emotionality continue to add up to severe sex role stereotyping.

Does The Depicted Male Stereotype Conform to or Alter the Dominant Cultural Stereotype?

Parallels drawn to the four societal rules of masculinity (Stevens, 1974) illustrate how television advertising reflects and confirms society's rules.

(1) The real man must prove his masculinity in financial, intellectual, and physical tests of varying kinds. Television most clearly confirms this societal stereotype through the portrayal of the male as "breadwinner" and "competitive individualist". He is seldom seen in the home and is most often depicted in a white collar occupation such as businessman or athlete,

denoting financial, intellectual and physical success. Moreover, Gregory (1978) has clearly stated that the pressures of this rule create undue tension leading to consumption of alcohol. Advertising content depicts this stereotypic male characteristic through the utilization of the competitive, hard-driving individualistic male or the male businessman to advertise alcoholic products.

(2) The future rather than the present is the central value of life--how things will come out in the end. The fact that male role models were conspicuously absent from the family setting, the home, its accompanying duties and associated products, indicates clearly that on television men are not supposed to be enjoying the present and the simpler things in life. Instead, the stereotype depicted was that males in our society must be drivers, must push to the top, must never waste time. For example, in a commerical for MacDonalds, the advertisement portrayed the businessman running from his home, into his car, and then quickly driving to MacDonalds for breakfast, very grateful that MacDonalds could serve him efficiently and promptly, so that he could run to work. Symbolically, this commercial tells us much about male stereotyping in our culture and on television. First of all, the fact that the man did not eat breakfast at home reflects a cultural stereotype banning males form strong home and familial bonds, indicating the future of his job is more significant than the presence of his family. Secondly, the "race to the finish" portrayal depicts male stereotypes that say men in our society must be drivers, must constantly compete, and must always push to the topmost rung in order to finish with prestige and respect. Unfortunately, advertisements such as these are not uncommon in television programming.

(3) Masculinity means rationality and repression of most emotions, particularly tender, dependent emotions. Conforming to this stereotype

without deviation, male sex role models are seldom allowed to show any emotion at all. If it is permitted, always it is directed toward a wife, girlfriend or child; a touch, an endearing look, maybe an arm around the shoulders. Never did one man show any caring toward another man. Television advertising conforms to this stereotype so completely, that all its male role models are rational, unemotional individuals.

(4) People whose judgments count are men; women are too emotional and are only important for sexual release and kitchen work. This stereotypic rule is clearly supported by television's consistent use of male characters and male voice-overs as authority symbols, to advertise within the female as well as the male domain. Subscribing to the rule that indeed only male judgments are important, the commercial agencies require males to be authorities on all types of products. As in society where males are expected to be decision makers and intellectual "superheros" so does television parallel that stereotype in advertising content.

Thus, although some men today are increasingly sensitive to the restrictive power of male sex role stereotypes, it is apparent that television is not supporting the change. Television continues to confirm and reflect the dominant cultural stereotypes which have been in existence for hundreds of years.

Stereotyping is a tight circular process whereby advertisers suggest the type of model people want to see, and the audience wants to see that model because television suggests it is important and appropriate. This circle of stereotyping is extremely difficult to break. Thus, discovering, as this study does, that males are often portrayed in stereotypical modes, may not be surprising. The importance of that finding, however, lies in the fact that the circular process of male stereotyping which both begins and ends with role restriction, is finally being illuminated in the hopes that it may promote and foster change.

APPENDIX A

(Categories and their Definitions)

APPENDIX

CATEGORIES AND OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

Representation of Characters.

1. Male character--any male person in the commercial who is on the air for at least three seconds, and has one line of dialog, or appears to be a central character.
2. Female character--any female person in the commercial who is on the air for at least three seconds, and has one line of dialog, or appears to be a central character.

Representation of Voice-overs.

1. Male voice-over--a male voice heard without a narrator being seen.
2. Female voice-over--a female voice heard without a narrator being seen.

Product Advertised.

1. Alcohol--any intoxicating liquor.
2. Automobiles/Motorcycles--passenger vehicle typically having four wheels and internal-combustion gasoline engine/ any two wheeled vehicle driven by a gasoline engine.
3. Automobile/Motorcycle accessories and equipment--any product used in repairing and taking care of these vehicles.
4. Body/Cosmetics--any powder, lotion, soap, or accessory used to improve beauty and attractiveness.
5. Foodstuffs/Home--any food product to be cooked, prepared or eaten in the home.

6. Foodstuffs/Restaurant--any commercial food product (McDonalds, Wendy's, Red Lobster).
7. Home products--any product used inside the home including home beautifiers, laundry soap, wax, disinfectants, etc.
8. Household furniture--any type of furniture found in the home (tables, chairs, bedstead, desks, cabinets, etc.)
9. Insurance--coverage by a contract for property, life, one's person against loss or harm, fire, etc.
10. Medical products and medical drugs--any substance used in treating illness or restoring health.
11. Lawn and garden products and accessories--any equipment or product used in caring for and beautifying the lawn or garden (lawn mowers, fertilizers, etc.).
12. National financial institutions--Master Charge, Visa, etc.
13. Personal accessories--any type of luggage, camera, watch, etc.
14. Pet food--any food product used to feed pets.
15. Public transportation-any airline, bus, or railroad service which provides public transportation.
16. Leisure time activities--any books, magazines, television sets, or newspapers.
17. Sports equipment--any equipment used in the playing of sports.
18. Toys and games--any article used for amusement or pastime which resembles a toy or game.
19. Other--any product not included in this category list.

Occupation Categories.

White collar:

1. Athlete--trained competitor in a sport, exercise, or game requiring physical skill.
2. Businessperson--person who engages in business or commerce, excluding retail business.
3. Coach--person who trains athletes.
4. Doctor (Medical)--a person licensed to practice medicine.
5. Entertainer--a professional singer, comedian, actor, or the like.
6. Flight attendant--employee who waits on people on an airplane, and who is responsible for the comfort of the passengers.
7. Lawyer--a person whose profession is to conduct lawsuits for clients and to advise or act for them in legal matters.
8. Model--a person whose profession is posing with, wearing, using or demonstrating a product for purposes of display or advertising.
9. Nurse--a professional person who takes care of the sick or infirm.
10. Pilot--a person qualified to operate an aircraft.
11. Salesclerk/person--a person who sells goods, services, etc., in a store.
12. Secretary--a person employed to handle correspondence and do routine work in a business office, usually involving taking dictation, typing, filing, etc.
13. Teacher--a person who instructs as a profession.

Blue collar:

14. Construction worker--one who builds or constructs buildings.
15. Cook in a restaurant--one who prepares food in a restaurant.
16. Cowboy/Cowgirl--a person who herds and tends cattle on a ranch; also "old west" cowboys/cowgirls.
17. Domestic engineer--a person who does all or most of the cleaning and cooking in the household, and who holds no other job.
18. Farmer/Rancher--a person who farms or ranches, operates and cultivates land or herds cattle.
19. Household servant--a person employed to perform domestic duties.
20. Mechanic--a skilled worker with repairing machinery, motors, etc.
21. Trucker--a person whose business is trucking goods.
22. Waitress/Waiter--a person who waits on tables in a restaurant.

Familial Roles

23. Parent--a mother or father.
24. Spouse/Opposite sex friend--a husband or wife; girlfriend or boyfriend.
25. Grandparent--a grandmother or grandfather.
26. Children--son or daughter.
27. No discernible occupation--any instance when the coder cannot tell what the occupation is or when an occupation is not present.
28. Other--any instance when an occupation appears which is not included in this category list.

Location of Characters

1. Bar--a place where mainly liquor is sold to customers.
2. Business--any place where professional occupation is practiced.
3. Car--location inside an automobile.
4. Home--a house, apartment or other place of residence.
5. Lockerroom--room containing lockers for athletes.
6. Outdoors--any location outside the home or business.
7. Restaurant--a place where meals are served to customers.
8. School/University--an institution for teaching people.
9. No discernible location--cannot tell where the character is located.
10. Other--locations not represented in the category list.

Representation of Authority by Male or Female Characters

1. Male shows authority--any male character who appears to be an expert on the product, offering knowledgable advice.
2. Female shows authority--any female character who appears to be an expert on the product, offering knowledgable advice.
3. Male voice-over demonstrates authority--any male voice-over which speaks knowledgeably and expertly about the product being advertised.
4. Female voice-over demonstrates authority--any female voice-over which speaks knowledgeably and expertly about the product being advertised.
5. No authority shown--neither the characters or voice-overs demonstrate authority.

Representation of Affection by Male or Female Characters

1. Male shows affection--any instance when a male character demonstrates tenderness, love, caring, fondness, etc. For example; husband putting arm around wife, holding child, etc.
2. Female shows affection--any instance when a female character demonstrates tenderness, love, caring, fondness, etc. For example; wife hugging husband, holding child, etc.
3. No affection shown--neither males or females in the commercial show any type of affection.

APPENDIX B

(Frequency Counts and Percentages of Categorized Data)

Table A

Representation of Characters and Voice-Overs

Categories	Frequency Counts	Percentages
Male characters	196	45% [a]
Female characters	236	55%
Total	432	100%
Male Voice-overs	180	96% [b]
Female Voice-overs	17	4%
Total	187	100%
Disagreements	20	3% [c]
Complete Total	649	

[a](%) = percent of total characters

[b](%) = percent of total voice-overs

[c](%) = percent of total characters and voice-overs

Table B

Product Categories

	Males		Females		Males
Categories	Frequency/Percent[a]		Frequency/Percent[b]		Percent[c]
Alcohol	20	10%	4	2%	83%
Automobile/Motorcycle	18	9%	9	4%	66%
Autos/Motors Acces-ories	12	6%	2	1%	86%
Body/Cosmetic	25	13%	80	34%	24%
Food/Home	59	30%	66	28%	47%
Food/Restaurant	8	4%	15	6%	35%
Home Product	10	5%	25	11%	29%
Furniture	7	4%	2	1%	77%
Insurance	6	3%	2	1%	75%
Medical Products	4	2%	17	7%	19%
Lawn and Garden	0	0%	0	0%	0%
National Finance	4	2%	0	0%	100%
Personal Accessories	10	5%	2	1%	83%
Pet Food	0	0%	3	1%	0%
Public Transportation	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Leisure Products	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Sports Equipment	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Toys and Games	0	0%	0	0%	0%

Table B
(cont)
Product Categories

Categories	Males Frequency/Percent[a]		Females Frequency/Percent[b]		Males Percent[c]
Other	8	4%	5	2%	62%
Disagreements	5	3%	4	2%	55%
Total	196	100%	236	100%	

[a](%) = percent of total males

[b](%) = percent of total females

[c](%) = percent of male characters in each category

Table C

Occupation Categories

	Males		Females		Males
Occupations White Collar	Frequency/Percent[a]		Frequency/Percent[b]		Percent [c]
Athlete	13	7%	13	7%	50%
Businessperson	12	6%	2	1%	86%
Coach	0	0%	1	0%	0%
Doctor	0	0%	1	0%	0%
Entertainer	1	0%	2	0%	50%
Flight Attendant	0	0%	1	0%	0%
Lawyer	0	0%	1	0%	0%
Model	1	0%	3	1%	25%
Nurse	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Pilot	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Salesperson	5	3%	7	3%	42%
Secretary	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Teacher	2	1%	0	0%	100%
Occupations Blue-collar					
Construction Worker	0	0%	1	0%	0%
Cook/Restaurant	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Cowboy/girl	4	2%	1	0%	80%

Table C (cont)

Occupation Categories

	Males		Females		Males
Occupations Blue-collar	Frequency/Percent[a]		Frequency/Percent[b]		Percent[c]
Domestic Engineer	2	1%	15	6%	12%
Farmer/Rancher	2	1%	0	0%	100%
Mechanic	2	1%	2	1%	50%
Servant	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Waitress/Waiter	1	0%	2	1%	33%
Trucker	1	0%	0	0%	100%
Familial Roles					
Grandparent	2	1%	5	2%	41%
Parent	18	9%	28	12%	29%
Son/Daughter	19	10%	27	11%	39%
Spouse/Girl or Boy Friend	21	11%	23	10%	48%
No discernible occupation	54	28%	71	30%	43%
Other	15	8%	8	3%	65%
Disagreements	21	11%	26	11%	45%
Total	196	100%	236	100%	

Table C (cont)

Occupation Categories

---

[a](%) = percent of total males

[b](%) = percent of total females

[c](%) = percent of males in each category

Table D

Location Categories

Categories	Males Frequency/Percent[a]		Females Frequency/Percent[b]		Males Percent[c]
Bar	6	3%	0	0%	100%
Business	25	13%	25	13%	50%
Car	14	7%	9	4%	61%
Home	49	25%	87	37%	34%
Locker Room	1	1%	2	1%	33%
Outdoors	48	24%	47	20%	51%
Restaurant	11	6%	8	3%	58%
School	2	1%	0	0%	100%
No discernible location	7	4%	15	6%	32%
Other	9	5%	17	7%	35%
Disagreements	25	13%	26	11%	49%
Total	196	100%	236	100%	

[a](%) = percent of total males

[b](%) = percent of total females

[c](%) = percent of males in each category

Table 5

Authority Categories

Categories	Frequency	Percentages
Male has authority	82	45%[a]
Female has authority	100	55%
Total	182	100%
Male voice-over has authority	154	91%[b]
Female voice-over has authority	15	9%
Total	169	100%
No authority shown	236	38%[c]
Disagreements	42	7%

[a](%) = percent of total characters showing authority

[b](%) = percent of total voice-overs showing authority

[c](%) = percent of total characters and voice-overs showing authority

Table F

Product Type and Sex of Character Having Authority

	Males		Females		Males
Categories	Frequency/Percent[a]		Frequency/Percent[b]		Percent[c]
Alcohol	4	5%	0	0%	100%
Autos/Motorcycles	12	15%	6	6%	71%
Autos/Motorcycle Accessories	8	10%	1	1%	91%
Body/Cosmetic	14	17%	48	48%	22%
Food/Home	15	18%	22	22%	41%
Food/Restaurant	1	1%	3	3%	25%
Home Product	4	5%	5	5%	44%
Furniture	7	8%	2	2%	77%
Insurance	3	4%	0	0%	100%
Medical Products	2	2%	4	4%	33%
Lawn and Garden	0	0%	0	0%	0%
National Finance	2	2%	0	0%	100%
Personal Accessories	4	5%	1	1%	80%
Pet Food	0	0%	2	2%	0%
Public Transportation	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Leisure Products	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Sports Equipment	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Toys and Games	0	0%	0	0%	0%

Table F (cont)

Product Type and Sex of Character Having Authority

	Males		Females		Males
Categories	Frequency/Percent[a]		Frequency/Percent[b]		Percent[c]
Other	5	6%	3	3%	62%
Disagreements	1	1%	3	3%	25%
Total	82	100%	100	100%	

[a](%) = percent of total males

[b](%) = percent of total females

[c](%) = percent of males in each category

Table G

Affection Categories

Categories	Frequency	Percent
Male shows affection	18	28% [a]
Female shows affection	45	72%
Total	63	100%
No affection shown	534	85% [b]
Disagreements	32	5%

[a](%) = percent of total characters showing affection

[b](%) = percent of total in all categories

References

Bandura, A., Ross, D., & Ross, S.A. Transmission of aggression through imitation of aggressive models. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1961, 63, 575-582.

Bandura, A., Ross, D., & Ross, S.A. Imitation of film mediated aggressive models. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1963, 66, 3-11.

Bardwick, J.M., & Schumann, S.J. Portrait of american men and women in television commercials. Psychology, 1967, 4 (4), 18-23.

Berelson, B. Content analysis in communication research. Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1952.

Berkowitz, L. Some aspects of observed aggression. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1965, 2 359-369.

Binzen, P. The annenberg school of communications. Change, 1978, 10 (3), 52-53.

Block, J.H. Conceptions of sex role: Some cross cultural and longitudinal perspectives. American Psychologist, 1973, 28, 512-526.

Brenton, M. The american male. New York: Coward-McCann, Inc. 1966.

Burr, D. & Burr, R.M. Product recognition and premium appeal. Journal of Communication, 1977, 27 (1), 115-117.

Busby, L.J. Sex role research in the mass media. Journal of Communication, 1975, 25, 107-131.

Cantor, M. Comparison of tasks and roles of males and females in commercials aired by WRC-TV during a composite week. In NOW, National capitol area chapter, Women in the wasteland fight back A report on the image of women portrayed in television programming. Washington, D.C.: NOW, 1972, 12-51.

Chaffee, S.H., & Petrick, M.J. Using the mass media: Communication problems in american society. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975.

Chaffee, S.H., Ward, S., & Tipton, L.P. Mass communication and political socialization. Journalism Quarterly, 1970, 47, 647-659.

Culley, J.D., & Bennett, R. Selling women, selling blacks. Journal of Communication, 1976, 26 160-174.

Dominick, J.R. Television and political socialization. Educational Broadcasting Review, 1972, 6, 48-51.

Dominick, J.R., & Greenberg, B.S. Attitudes toward violence: The interaction of television exposure, family attitudes, and social class. In G. Comstock and E. Rubenstein (Eds.), Television and Social Behavior. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1972.

Dominick, J.R., & Rauch, G.E. The image of women in network television commercials. Journal of Broadcasting, 1972, 16, 159-165.

Farrell, W.T. The liberated man: Freeing men and their relationships with women. New York: Random House, 1974.

Feilitzen, C.V., & Linne, O. Identifying with television characters. Journal of Communication, 1975, 25, 51-55.

Freuh, T., & McGhee, P.E. Traditional sex role development and amount of time spent watching television. Developmental Psychology, 1975, 11, 109.

Gerbner, G., & Gross, L. Living with television: The violence profile. Journal of Communication, 1976, 26, 173-199. (a)

Gerbner, G., & Gross, L. The scary world of television's heavy viewer. Psychology Today, 1976, 9, 41-45. (b)

Gerbner, G., Gross, L., Jackson-Beeck, M., Jeffries-Fox S., and Signorielli, N. Cultural Indicators: Violence Profile No. 9. Journal of Communication, 28 (3), (Summer), 1978, 176-207.

Gerbner, G., Gross, L., Signorielli, N., Morgan, M. & Jackson-Beeck, M. The demonstration of Power: Violence Profile No. 10. Journal of Communication, 29, 1979, (Summer), 177-196.

Gregory, J. Workaholics often make lousy lovers. Lincoln Journal, 1978, Friday, June 16, 10.

Gross, L. The "real" world of television. Today's Education, 1974, 63 (1), 86.

Hartley, R.E. Sex role pressures and the socialization of the american child. Psychological Reports, 1959, 5, 457-468.

Hennessee, J.A., & Nicholson, J. NOW says: Television commercials insult women. New York Times Magazine, May 28, 1972, 12-13.

Hicks, D.J. Imitation and retention of film mediated aggressive peer and adult models. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1965, 2, 97-100.

Hollander, N. Adolescents and the war: Sources of socialization. Journalism Quarterly, 1971, 48, 472-479.

Isber, C., & Cantor, M. Report of the task force on women in public broadcasting. Washington, D.C.: Corporation for Public Broadcasting, 1975.

Jackson-Beeck, M. Interpersonal and mass communication in children's political socialization. Journalism Quarterly, 56 (1), Spring, 1979, 48-53.

Johnson, N. How to talk back to your television set. Boston: Little, Brown, and Co., 1970.

Johnson, N. The crush of television. In R.J. Glessing & W. P. White (Eds.), Mass media: The invisible environment. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1973.

Kagan, J. Check one: Male or female. Psychology Today, 1969, 3, 39-42.

Komisar, L. The image of women in advertising. In V. Gornick & B. Moran (Eds.), Women in sexist society. New York: Basic Books, 1971.

Kraus, S. Mass communication and political socialization. Quarterly Journal of Speech, 1973, 59, 390-400.

Kuhns, W. Exploring television. Illinois: Loyola University Press, 1971.

Larsen, O.N., (Ed.). Violence and the mass media. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1968.

Lefkowitz, M. M., Eron, L.D., Walder, L.O., & Heusaan, L.R. Television violence and child aggression: A follow-up study. In G. Comstock & E. Rubenstein (Eds.), Television and social behavior. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1972.

Leifer, A.D., Gordon, N.J., & Browne, S. Children's television: More than mere entertainment. Harvard Education Review, 1974, 44, 213-245.

Levinson, R.M. From Olive Oyl to Sweet Polly Purebread: Sex role stereotyping and televised cartoons. Journal of Pop Culture, 1975, 9, 561-572.

Liebert, R.M., & Baron, R.A. Short term effects of televised aggression on children's aggressive behavior. In G. Comstock & E. Rubenstein (Eds.), Television and social behavior. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1972.

Liebert, R.M., Neale, J.M., & Davidson, E.S. The early window: Effects of television on children and youth. New York: Pergamon, 1973.

Lyle, J., & Hoffman, H.R. Children's use of television and other media. In E. Rubenstein, G. Comstock, & J.P. Murray (Eds.), Television and social behavior. (Vol. 4). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1972, 211-230.

Maracek, J., Piliavin, J.A., Fitzsimmons, E., Krogh, E.C., Leader, E., & Trudell, B. Women as television experts: The voice of authority? Journal of Communication, 1978, 28 (1), 159-168.

McArthur, L.Z., & Resko, B.G. The portrayal of men and women in american television commercials. Journal of Social Psychology 1975, 97, 209-220.

McCarthy, E.D., Langner, T.S., Gersten, J.C., Eisenberg, J.G., & Orzeck, L. Violence and behavior disorders. Journal of Communication, 1975, 25 (4), 71-85.

McGhee, P.E. Television as a source of learning sex role stereotypes. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 111 528, 1975)

McNeal, J.U. An exploratory study of the consumer behavior of children. In J.U. McNeal (Ed.), Dimensions of Consumer Behavior. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969.

Miller, M.M., & Reeves, B. Dramatic television content and children's sex role stereotypes. Journal of Broadcasting, 1975, 20, 35-50.

O'Donnell, W. J., & O'Donnell, K.J. Update: Sex role messages in television commercials. Journal of Communication, 1978, 28 (1), 156-158.

Rivers, C. How to be spotless, sexy and loved. New York Times, April 28, 1974, p. D15.

Robertson, T.S., & Rossiter, J.R. Childrens responsiveness to commercials. Journal of Communication, 1977, 27 (1), 101-106.

Robertson, Thomas S. Parental Mediation of Television Advertising Effects. Journal of Communication, 29 (1), Winter, 1979, pp 12-25.

Rossiter, John R. & Robertson Thomas S. Children's TV commercials: Testing the defenses. Journal of Communication, 1974, 23, 137-144.

Rubin, Alan M. Child and adolescent television use and political socialization. Journalism Quarterly, 55 (1), Spring 1978, 125-129.

Rubenstein, E., & Comstock, G., (Eds.). Surgeon General's Scientific Advisory Committee on Television and Social Behavior. Television and growing up: The impact of televised violence. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1972.

Sawyer, J. On male liberation. Liberation, 1970, 15, 32-33.

Schweiker, W. College in action: Does video violence make Johnny hit back? Science Digest, 1972, 71, 57.

Scott, W. A. Reliability of content analysis: The case of nominal scale coding. Public Opinion Quarterly, 1955, 19, 321-325.

Steinmann, A., & Fox, D.J. The male dilemma: How to survive the sexual revolution. New York: Jason Aronson, 1974.

Stevens, B. The sexually oppressed male. Psychotherapy, 1974, 11 16-21.

U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Window dressing on the set: Women and minorities in television. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1977.

Ward, S. Effects of advertising on children and adolescents. Television and Social Behavior, 1971, 4, 432-451.

Winick, C. Sex and advertising. In R.J. Glessing & W.P. White (Eds), Mass media: The invisible environment. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1973.